APR 23 1928

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Journal of EDUCATION

BOSTON, MASS.
Vol. CVII, No. 17

April 23, 1928

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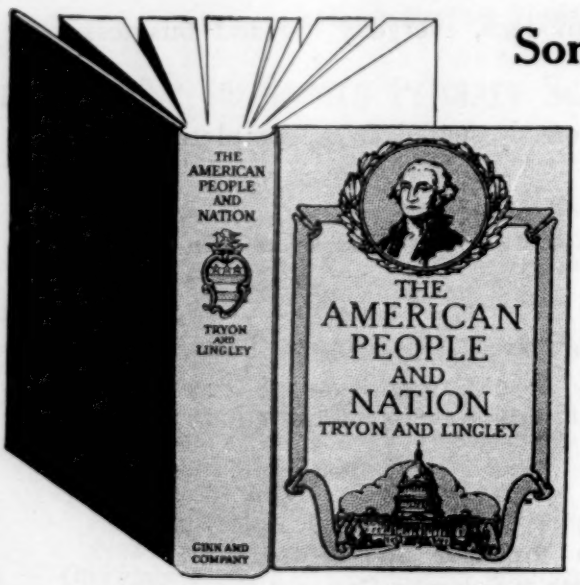

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JOURNAL of EDUCATION

A. E. WINSHIP and A. W. BELDING, EDITORS

ISOBEL R. LAY, MANAGING EDITOR

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Founded in 1875. Published Weekly (fifty issues a year) by the New England Publishing Company, Six Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts. Subscriptions in the United States, $3.00 a Year; Canadian postage, 50c; Foreign postage, $1.00. Entered at Postoffice in Boston, Mass., as Second Class Matter.

EDITORIALS

Educational Economy

IN THIS day of hectic criticism of the schoolmaster and the glorification of money saving in the school budget, something can be said in appreciation of the modern school and a suggestion of possible discount of economic virtue.

The modern school is sometimes superlatively economical. For instance, in a municipality of less than 20,000 population, within thirty miles of Boston, the old-fashioned regime persisted, until three years ago, of making a child stay in a grade a second or third year if in any respect he did not maintain the class standard of his grandfather.

Three years ago there were one hundred and seventy-five pupils taking a grade for the second or third time and seventy-five of them were repeaters for more than the second time.

Next June not more than twelve pupils will repeat a grade, at least not more than twelve are now candidates for repetition of a year.

This means that if that community were back where it had the habit of being three years ago it would have spent one hundred and forty-four times as much money on needlessly crippled pupils as it is now spending.

Another item of expense is worthy of note: A pupil repeating the work of a year before because he failed takes vastly more of his teacher's time than do other pupils and he drags more heavily upon the teacher's energy than do other pupils.

It is also known that the class work of all the pupils is more efficient if there are no holdovers to lower the tone of the class.

A more important factor in all this is the effect upon the retarded child for life. The child is made to feel that he is a school cripple, a sort of infantile paralysis cripple from which he never expects to recover. The chances are that his earning capacity is lowered for life, and the chances of his being a public charge, directly and indirectly, are multiplied by his being put in the class of mental cripples.

The financial investment alone in modernizing that school system in that one respect is a saving comparable to supplanting old-fashioned country mud with concrete boulevards.

Death of Dr. O. T. Corson

AS WE GO to press word reaches us that Dr. O. T. Corson, Oxford, Ohio, died suddenly on Saturday, April 14.

"Boyology" is the subject upon which Joseph D. Decker is conducting Knights of Columbus classes in various cities. The subject is no more attractive than is his treatment of "Boy Life" problems.

The Fruit of the Gout

WE RECENTLY used as the editorial leader the story of inclines in the Pueblo Hospital. As the result of that editorial we have learned where Dr. R. W. Corwin got his idea of the incline as a relief from the pain of the jolt of stairs.

So far as is known, certainly so far as Dr. Corwin knows, the first use of the incline was in Germany. It was only seven feet in length, and was built several generations ago for the great-great-great-grandfather of the late Emperor, who had the gout, and the incline was built to eliminate the jar and jolt of stairs.

The first use of the incline in a hospital was in the hospital of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, in Pueblo. Now it is used in the new hospitals everywhere.

Engleman at Kent

THE election of J. O. Engleman to succeed David Allen Anderson as president of the State Teachers College at Kent, Ohio, should solve one of the most vexatious problems in teacher-training in the country. He will have one of the best educational plants in the country, and one of the best educational districts in the country, and few men are as well equipped for handling the complex affairs that will be inherited at Kent as is J. O. Engleman, who made a famous success at Decatur, Illinois, and whose professional service at Terre Haute was highly valuable.

Apparently the firing of William McAndrew was not a great political investment.

Gullible Investors

THE Better Business Bureaus estimate that through the purchase of worthless securities the women of this country will lose over $700,000,000 during 1928. This enormous sum is but a small portion of the total that will be lost by women during the same period in real estate, unsound business ventures, etc. Insurance companies report that 90 per cent. of estates over $5,000 left to women are dissipated within seven years of receipt.

Of course, we have no means of knowing how much foundation there is in these wholesale statements, but we do have a personal knowledge of the ease with which some men as well as women are duped by skilful salesmen, and we report upon two of many experiences—one a man, and one a woman.

A subscriber to the Journal of Education wrote from a distant city asking our opinion of the financial reputation of a Boston principal. We replied that our editor was ready to assume responsibility for any claim that any one had on him.

Two years later the inquirer wrote that he had invested eight hundred dollars, all his savings, on our recommendation, and had lost it. He annoyed us for some time, claiming that we were responsible for his investment.

These are the facts: A man in business had the sympathy of a group of Boston principals, who some time before had tried to help the man over a tight place by buying stock, a small investment for each. They knew they were liable to lose it, as they did.

Now this man, far away, was solicited to buy stock when it was practically worthless, and he was told that this Boston principal, a fine business man, was one of the stockholders, and suggested that he ask me about this principal's reliability. The whole affair was a deep-laid scheme, promising big dividends.

Another experience: A woman teacher whom I had helped to several promotions came to me to ask my advice about buying some stock that would pay her twenty-five per cent. I knew nothing of the stock, but I advised her to buy no stock that promised big dividends. I admitted that there were some things that proved to be good games, but no one should jeopard their savings in such chances. I said: "Keep your capital, however small it may be, and it will always yield something, but when the capital is gone everything is gone."

She said: "I was told to come to you for advice, that you would say exactly what you have said. They knew you like a book. I shall put all of my savings into this stock," and she did, and lost every dollar of it within six months.

The General Federation of Women's Clubs is trying to save women, especially teachers, from the tragedy that costs so many women their independence. We certainly wish them great success.

Max Mason is saying many new things, and is saying old things in a new way.

Famous Cleveland

AMERICAN cities have as distinct personality as have men famous in achievement. Men who make a place for themselves in leadership have a recognized personality as distinct as that of Thomas A. Edison, Henry Ford, Andrew Carnegie and Michael Pupin.

It is equally true that cities that attain national importance have municipal personality, and a study of these cities is as fascinating a study as that of great men.

Cleveland has achieved an educational personality unsurpassed by any city of the last seventy-five years, and its prominence has been due primarily to the eminence of several of its school superintendents.

Cleveland had a superintendent of schools in 1853, seventy-five years ago. It was one of the first cities in the New World to employ a superintendent, which demonstrates its early appreciation of local educational leadership.

From 1867 to 1882 Andrew J. Rickoff, Cleveland superintendent of schools, was one of the most famous educational leaders of the country. He was one of the eight educators in the forefront of the profession in those fifteen years. There was no other city superintendent of schools to challenge his leadership in those fifteen years. William T. Harris, in St. Louis, to whose friendship Mr. Rickoff owed much, had been out of the superintendency for fully one half of Mr. Rickoff's term of office.

B. A. Hinsdale, who had been president of Hiram College and an associate with James A. Garfield, was in the forefront of educational chieftains before and after his superintendency of Cleveland.

Dr. Andrew S. Draper went from the state commissionership of New York to Cleveland and from Cleveland to the presidency of the State University of Illinois. For a third of a century Dr. Draper was among the educational leaders of America.

Lewis H. Jones had won recognition and was famously successful as superintendent of Indianapolis before going to Cleveland. He went from Cleveland to the presidency of one of the greatest teachers' colleges in the country.

Stratton D. Brooks went from Cleveland to the superintendency of Boston, after which he created a great State University in Oklahoma and recreated one of the greatest state universities in the country in Missouri. William H. Elson, after six years of superintendency in Cleveland, is a most successful creator of school books. Frank E. Spaulding went from the superintendency of Minneapolis to Cleveland, and from the superintendency of Cleveland to the directorship of the School of Education of Yale University. No other American educator of today has had a more distinguished professional career in city superintendency in four great states, as a creator of famously successful school books and in university professional leadership. R. G. Jones is one of the brilliant leaders in the direction of several highly important professional creations of the country. Other superintendents, though less famous nationally, rendered important service to the schools.

No other American city has had an educational personality created in the same way, and Cleveland has utilized the effect of its educational advantage in the creation of several world-famous personalities in various other lines of civic, social and industrial service.

Clean

By EDGAR A. GUEST

I want that boy of mine to be
  Square to the last and final letter;
From taint or cunning wholly free.
  I want him to love honor better
Than victory and silver things
  Which contest in a struggle brings.

"Clean as a hound's tooth!" that's the phrase
  Once by our leader Roosevelt spoken,
Who loved the sportsman's manly way,
  And valued truth beyond a token;
Better to lose with conscience clean
  Than win by methods false and mean.

I want him to observe the rules,
  Be fair in desperate circumstances;
To know that cunning's used by fools
  Who fear to take the harder chances!
That with the victory of deceit
  The victor quits the field a cheat.

I want him to play hard to win,
  But not make victory his master;
Whatever game he enters in
  Though he must triumph or disaster
I want him coming home a man
  As clean as when the game began.

Oh, Boy of mine, let sportsmanship
  Never for any gain desert you;
If on yourself you keep your grip
  There is no failure that can hurt you;
You shall have more than prizes mean,
  If you have kept your record clean.

—Harding Star.

Belding's Page

THE ROD

AN UNSPANKED generation is growing up. On the one hand are many who rejoice in this fact. On the other hand are many others who wag their heads in sadness and point to many dire results which are traceable to the spared and broken rod.

Let us be clear in our thinking about this matter.

Discipline is still needed in the world. The rod, as a symbol of discipline, must remain with us, and there are occasions, no doubt, when it ought to be applied actually and not merely figuratively.

But this modern age is awakening to a very patent fact about corporal punishment. That fact is, that whippings in the past have been grossly overdone. The rawhide was regarded as a panacea. The birch and the ruler were within easy reach. They offered a convenient exhaust for the wrath, righteous or otherwise, of a schoolmaster or a parent. And in many instances the child was improved by the licking.

The use of the rod is scriptural. The use of intelligence is even more so. And it takes more intelligence to discover and apply the right substitute than it does to employ brute strength. A punishment which fits the offence, one which teaches a lesson in an impressive way, is better than a whipping in the vast majority of instances. But when human wits fail and milder remedies have been tried in vain, only a weak and silly person would deny the necessity of the rod.

Some of our wisest judges, for example, are advising that young bandits be taken into the basement of the courthouse and smartly thwacked in the presence of their boon companions and erstwhile admirers.

The first essential of discipline is self discipline. No one who has lost control should be allowed to inflict punishment. Whippings are out of place in a high school. They should be rare events in an elementary school. The knowledge that they may happen has a wholesome influence.

To enlist juvenile co-operation and the desire to do the right thing because it is both right and reasonable, is far better than to compel obedience.

The danger is from adult leadership which falls down and does nothing to set right the child that obviously is headed wrong. Disappearance of the woodshed is to be deplored when we look at such cases.

FINE FEATHERS

ENVY of the finery worn by some of her classmates led a high school girl in an eastern city to steal two fur coats and run away from home to live on the proceeds from the sale of one of the coats. The silly child was arrested, brought before a judge and committed to a reformatory.

It seldom gets so far as this. But the desire to keep up with the social procession makes gall and bitterness in many a young heart. It causes parents to scrimp and save in order that their sons and daughters may be happy in an environment that should be democratic.

Yes, to be sure. Young persons must be taught to see life in the right perspective, and to perceive that clothes are less significant than brains, character and ideals. But these lessons cannot always be imparted successfully to heads that disbelieve them.

Some high schools are putting their girls in uniforms. It is an idea, at any rate. It shows some one is thinking on an important and frequently neglected phase of scholastic life.

HOW LONG IS EDUCATION?

THIS education has always been a lifelong process. The majority of thinking persons have no doubt realized this as they have gone on learning with the years. Some of them have said: "This life cannot be all, for we have but commenced to know how to live when we are called away." To these souls, education has meant not only life but eternity.

In recent years the truth that education extends from the beginning to the end of life, whenever that end may be, has been increasingly grasped by men and women in this country; with the result that larger numbers than ever before have tried to avail themselves of formal education in adult life.

The world itself imparts a rough and ready sort of training. The schools have acquired some expertness in selecting the instruction which a person is likely to need and giving it to him in advance. The schools stand for an efficient process, a method and apparatus which save time and mistakes.

So today we witness a vast educational system in which the needs of the human individual from the cradle to the grave are taken into the reckoning.

One of the most hopeful movements of our time is the stretching of education into the preschool age. Study that is made of this early period is certain to be fruitful. There is endless room for mothers, in particular, to learn their all important part in laying the foundations of their children's life habits. What wrongs irreparable have been done to childhood by ignorant parents who have said to themselves that the first years do not count!

First to last, the years all count.

Anson W. Belding

Associate Editor.

Awakening Imagination

By ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN
Chancellor, New York University

THE life we have to live, the life our pupils have to live, is a life of choices, purposes, determinations. The filling-in is routine, well done or badly done as the case may be; but what gives character and significance to it all is a succession of decisions. These are choices between two alternatives or many alternatives—never mind the etymology. And our choices are made on grounds of faith, not on grounds of knowledge. Men speak of education as if it meant increase of knowledge. Knowledge is contributory, knowledge is necessary. But the things that make life worth while are the steps we take when we walk by faith, not by sight, and the education that is worth while is the education that prepares for such a life.

A slave of routine is limited to his round of knowledge; the men who make the life of the world are those who have the courage to believe more than they know and the conscience to test their beliefs in the spirit of truth. You will find these men in the eleventh chapter of Hebrews, you will find them in Plutarch's *Lives*, you will find them all down through the history of modern science and inventions, you will find them all about us today in the everyday walks of life.

This view of life would shift the centre of gravity in our education from memory to imagination. I have been tempted to say that it is the aim of education to produce a disciplined imagination. I rather like that phrase because it directly antagonizes two of the deepest prejudices of our modern pedogogy, first, the belief that there is no such thing as discipline; and secondly, the belief that there is no such thing as imagination. At the same time, it would seem to support—or condone—one of the most fashionable of present-day fashions in pedagogy, namely, the so-called project method. The project method tends to become artificially natural when it gets away from the vocational subjects in which it had its origin, architecture, agriculture, and the like. When naturalism is artificially produced it becomes too suggestive of millinery. Nevertheless "projects" have this merit, that they make memory tributary to imagination.

Let us for a moment think of education as the making of a disciplined imagination. In some pupils imagination must be spurred and awakened. In others it runs riot. But even in its exuberance it is a precious element of personality. In either case it comes to naught except through discipline. Creative architecture, creative agriculture, creative art in any field, it must all of it have the discipline of science. Science is not robbing the modern world of imagination. It is giving to the modern imagination an incomparable discipline, a discipline which enables it to go immeasurably further than was possible in earlier generations.

The human race, for generations to come, must continue to walk by faith and not by sight. Imagination must still mark out the new ways in which each generation is to make its explorations and experiments. But science, with its accumulating knowledge, is more and more to warn our faith away from blind leads which have led our fathers astray. It is to point out the directions in which greater precision is required, in thought and measurement. It is to reveal the laws embedded in human nature which must underlie our governments and our theologies. Science must set imagination free by bringing it under the discipline of spur and bridle.

When we build a bridge we must build according to the tested formulae of the engineer. The science that underlies those formulae will enable our engineers to build greater bridges in years to come. But where those bridges shall be placed and the ends they shall serve will depend upon the purposes and the ambitions of the generation that shall build them.

When our people are attacked by some unheard-of disease we shall take precautions of which our fathers were ignorant, and look to the medical profession for more light. The profession itself will at first be of divided opinion, and no one can tell with certainty which opinions are worthless and which one of all the number points to the true explanation. Government must intervene, and must base its regulations on a human judgment as to the expert who is really expert and worthy of public confidence.

When a presidential election is to turn on questions of international relations, of public morals, of financial policy, or any other issue the people must choose which one of opposing leaders they will trust. They have much of knowledge and experience for their guidance which were not available a century ago; they lack the greater knowledge and experience which will be available a hundred years from now; but they will make their choice and go their way, with a little sight and a great deal more of faith. They will abide by the will of the majority, which is the essence of democracy. But do they realize that their faith in democracy is itself an implicit religion—a belief that there is a tendency or purpose running through the conflicting thoughts and aims of the

crowd, which on the whole moves on toward safety, betterment, and righteousness?

When a generation of children is to be educated, a like condition obtains. There are findings of science that will help. A rapidly advancing science will communicate its tempo to the processes involved. But it is human judgment which will direct, the great-minded and great-hearted judgment of captains of the spirit, playing upon the diffused and irresistible tide of opinion that runs through the mass of men. Faith in Providence or in democracy, imagination that paints our social ideals, the courage that grapples with a new age without waiting for maps or for mandates, these will determine our educational policy. These will continue to give us an educational practice, on which we shall theorize *ex post facto*.

But the case is not so vague and haphazard as these words might seem to indicate. Let me mention two or three cautions and corollaries:—

1. In our elementary schools from time immemorial, memory has hobbled imagination. Now that imagination is having its chance, even in the lower grades, we must remember that it is only a disciplined imagination that accomplishes anything worth the doing. The alphabet, the multiplication table, and the geography of the world are as indispensable as ever. Now that we are lightening them up with the play of imagination, we are finding out anew how indispensable they are. We are finding how helpless is imagination without these tools and implements, without the chastening of realities which these commonplaces of knowledge represent. And so it is in the higher departments of education, where imagination is slowly making its way, but finds that it can take flight only in so far as it bides by the laws which science brings to light.

2. But science, too, is a field of imagination. How many scientists would care for science if it were only an inventory of established facts and laws? Hypothesis is an essential part of its method. What appeals to the true scientist is that his method provides ways of verifying or disproving his hypotheses. It gives hope of finding, for some of his puzzles, answers that are themselves unanswerable. So science is typical of the disciplined imagination. Its attraction lies in the fact that it is living and growing, like a tree. Its growth is its life. The process of its growth is what may properly be called research. He who has missed the spirit and meaning of research has missed the spirit and meaning of science. Whoever has in him the spirit of modern science, has in him the impulse to research, whether his field lie in chemistry or in pedagogy. You cannot deny freedom of research to the teacher of pedagogy, any more than you can deny it to the teacher of chemistry.

And scientific research inevitably tends to mathematical expression. I do not know who first declared that there is in a science only so much of science as there is of mathematics. I have found the saying as far back as Leonardo da Vinci. I am not prepared to accept it absolutely. But when our modern teachers of pedagogy are criticised for their endless measurements I am disposed to answer that it cannot be helped. The man who has tasted of science is very likely to say in effect: "Woe is me if my studies do not eventuate in graphs and measurements." But heaven help him lest he delude himself into thinking that all of his graphs and measurements are scientific.

3. But when all is said and done, scientific pedagogy is not all of pedagogy nor the greater part. In education as in politics we walk only a little way by sight. Whether we realize it or not, tradition, opinion, purpose, faith will rule. Our plans for betterment are shaped by imagination. Where else is there greater need that our imagination should be subject to discipline? Science is discipline, but the sciences are not enough. If we are to subdue tradition, opinion, purpose, faith to the purposes of education as an orderly development of social good, it must be through rigorous and dominant thought, that shall be worthy of being called *philosophy*. Our philosophizing may be much of it an after thought of our action, but they who make the serious endeavor to interpret adequately what they have done, have thereby prepared themselves to do better in the next stage of their activity. The acts of a great people in politics, or industry, or education have in them, no doubt, a potential or implied philosophy. To make that philosophy articulate, for the future as well as the past, is the supreme function of our schools of education. That those schools may possess and may send forth into the world not only masters of measurement, but great spirits, enriched by learning, trained in the severities of thought, and possessed of insight into things as yet invisible, is the great end toward which we strive.

That teacher is greatest who creates within the school an atmosphere of freedom, growth, and responsibility. That principal is greatest who gives teachers the maximum freedom and who secures the largest growth and self-imposed responsibility. That superintendent is greatest who is most able to develop principals and teachers and to keep them free in their work with the children. . . .

—Cornelia S. Adair.

Mental Tests and Scientific Thinking

By W. D. COMMINS

St. Louis University, St. Louis, Missouri

IT HAS been extremely interesting from one point of view to note the variety of attitudes towards intelligence tests that have been aroused since their first appearance a few years ago. They have ranged all the way from opinions of absolute skepticism as to their feasibility, up through a complete acceptance of them as a panacea for all the ills that civilization is heir to, even to a wholehearted rejection that has been consequent upon a keenly felt disillusionment. This variety of attitudes, from another point of view, is rather a sad commentary upon our educational thought, because it is largely the product of an unscientific manner of thinking. And this in a day when we pride ourselves upon the fact that we are living in a scientific age.

Not that scientists do not disagree, and sometimes very heartily, upon questions of theory or of practice, and thus give rise to differences of opinion on a rational level, but the great majority of persons who have expressed an opinion, or who harbor an unexpressed one, of the merits and claims of intelligence tests, either favorable or unfavorable, have acquired these attitudes not only in relative ignorance of the tests and the principles upon which they have been constructed, but—what is fundamentally more important—even in relative ignorance of the basis of all scientific measurement. If mental tests pass into the great oblivion they will at least have served the extremely valuable purpose of showing how, on occasion, this "scientific" age of ours has failed to manifest any indications of scientific thought. The misconceptions prevalent concerning mental tests, in both the exaggerated acceptance and condemnation of their supposed merits, may cause us to ask if all the great scientific advances of the past century have been in the fields of industry and commerce, and have left no corresponding changes in our manner of thinking. Has our education ever become truly scientific?

One of the first unscientific attitudes towards intelligence tests was that of mystification. People wondered how scientists could ever succeed in measuring such a hidden, inscrutable thing as the human mind. It had always been supposed to reside deep down in the impenetrable recesses of human nature, intangible and unmeasurable, and all at once the psychologists were reputed to have come forth with a mental tape-measure and a pair of scales to give its dimensions in numbers. A truly marvelous thing, thought the world, an achievement that differed in kind from every other type of measurement. This was scientific error number one and showed how little we appreciated the real nature of all scientific measurements.

Psychologists, of course, did not reach down into the recesses of human nature, pull up the mind, and spread it on the laboratory table so that they might take its length and breadth and weight. That would be impossible, so they decided that they could find out what the mind was like by measuring what it does. They supposed, and rightly so, that the mind that could do very difficult things was superior to the mind that could do only very easy things. So they set problems for different minds to do, and estimated the strength of the minds from the number and difficulty of the tasks that they could perform. In other words, they did not measure minds directly at all, but succeeded in measuring them only indirectly through what they did, or through their activities.

But this way of measuring things is not peculiar to mental tests, it is characteristic of all scientific measurement. We measure not only the mind, but all things, not by what they are in themselves, but by what they do. Nobody has ever seen electricity, or heard it, or tasted it, and yet we have our "volts," and our "amperes," and our "watts," which are all indirect measurements of electricity, by taking into consideration what the electric current can do, and not what it is in itself. No one knows, not even expert physicists, what electricity is like in itself. They know what it can do and measure that. The electric current that it takes to run a street car can be measured in terms of the weight of the street car, and we could compare it with the electric current used in running an electric automobile, which would also be measured in terms of the weight of the automobile. We could say that the current used in the first case is greater than that used in the second case because the street car is heavier than the auto. Otherwise we could not measure or compare the electric currents at all. We measure electricity by measuring what it does.

We measure other things by measuring what they do. What is the weight of a pound of butter? It is the measure of the pressure that the butter exerts on one arm of a balance due to the pull of gravity. If gravity did not pull, then we could not measure the weight. If the pull of gravity is stronger, as it is at the North pole. then the butter becomes heavier, and if the pull of gravity is weaker, as it is at the equator, then the butter becomes lighter. In other words, we measure how much "matter" a pound of butter contains by measuring how much

force it exerts upon one arm of a pair of scales, or by measuring its activity, and when this activity or force varies, its weight changes too. Of course there may be, in this pound of butter, a constant amount of "matter" that never changes, but we have no way of knowing it or of measuring it except through the way it acts upon other things. We can not measure weight by measuring the inner core of "matter" directly, but have to estimate this inner core by measuring what it does.

All other physically measurable properties of things are also forms of activity. All the sense qualities, such as color, and taste, and sound, and odor, and warmth, and cold, and so on, those characteristics through which we know all things, are expressions of activity or force in one form or another. Sound and light are vibrations, temperature is due to a change in the movement of the molecules, smell and taste are due to the chemical activity of the atoms of the substance. Everything that we know about a material body has its origin in some form of activity of the thing, and hence every measurement that we make is a measurement of what the thing does, and not what it is. We measure things through their properties, and properties are just different ways of acting towards other things.

When psychologists attempt to measure the human mind by measuring what it does, they are not using a means that is anything but the ordinary method of measuring everything in the universe. There is no essential difference between mental and physical measurement, and it was only because we were not really acquainted with the nature of scientific measurement that we thought there might be. We had learned to work scientifically without thinking scientifically.

Another error in our thinking that showed us to be scientific tyros was implied in the surprise that was manifested at the employment of numbers in giving results from intelligence tests. Even supposing that scientists could reach the human mind, how could they arrive at any conclusion concerning the value of the numbers that the tests gave? What was the standard of measurement, by which we were to judge that the mind deserved a rating of 150, or superior, or only a rating of fifty, or inferior? In speaking of material things fifty inches or fifty pounds meant that the thing contained fifty of the units used in the measuring scale. But what would a mental test result of fifty mean? Fifty what? What would be the units of measurement or the standard in terms of which the measurement could be expressed?

The reason for asking ourselves this question is because we have become so accustomed to using "pounds" and "yards" that we think that they represent very definite amounts of matter, whereas the contrary is actually the case. How much is a yard of cloth? Thirty-six inches. But how much is an inch? Purely arbitrary, according to tradition, the length of the end bone of an English king's finger. Is an inch really long or short? It would be extremely short to a Brobdingnagian, but perhaps quite long to a Lilliputian. There is no way of knowing just how long or short it is in itself. If we should wake up some morning and find ourselves shrunk to about one-twentieth of our normal size, an inch would lose its present value. It is the same way with a pound. A pound of iron is heavier in a valley than it is at a mountain-top, and heavier when we are tired than when we are fresh. We do not really know just how much matter is contained in fifty inches or in fifty pounds, but their value is relative to many other things. When we speak of fifty pounds of butter, then, we do not really know just how much butter there is in the package, considered in its real nature, but only know that there is fifty times as much butter in our package as there would be in a pound package. We do not know just how much butter there is in either package, but we know that, whatever the real quantities are, there will always be fifty times as much in the one as in the other. Two inches, furthermore, would always be twice as long as one inch, no matter whether we were Lilliputians or Brobdingnagians. We can know the relation existing between two quantities and measure that, although we may not be able to measure the two quantities in themselves.

The relativity of all our measurements, or the measuring of each thing in terms of something else, and this something else in terms of a third quantity, and so on, never finally reaching a quantity that we can put our finger on and say that this is just so big or so heavy, does not usually give us much trouble. We balance one thing against another, and even if we do not know in the final analysis just how big an inch is, or how heavy a pound is, we can nevertheless be sure that the thing that is two inches long is longer than the thing that is only one inch long, and the thing that weighs two pounds is heavier than the thing that weighs only one pound, however long or heavy they themselves in reality turn out to be. Our ability to measure consists, essentially, in setting off one thing against another and attempting to see whether it has more or less of the thing that we are looking for. If we were strictly accurate in our manner of speaking, we should be forced to say that a thing was bigger or biggest, or longer or heaviest, always in reference to other things, and we really should have no right at all to say that a thing was big, or long, or heavy, unless we remembered at the same time that it was to be considered as big, or long, or heavy, only as we formed opinions about things, and as it compared with other things that were similar to it.

The numbers that we use in any type of meas-

urement are after all only relative, and simply place the thing measured with reference to something else. This is essentially what the psychologists do when they attempt to measure the intelligence of a person's mind, and in that they are merely following the cue of scientific method in general. We can know that a man is more intelligent, or more virtuous, or more emotional than another, without knowing just how intelligent, or virtuous, or emotional either one is. The most intelligent of men might be a dunderhead when compared with the least intelligent of the angels, the most virtuous of women might be only a shadow of herself if she were transported to another sphere, the most emotional human being might turn into a raging fire of passion, if our bodily temperatures were increased fifty degrees. No one knows how to measure intelligence, or emotionality or virtue, in themselves, but mental traits must be measured by referring them to similar traits in other people, and in this we find no difference from the measurement of length or weight. We use something else to gauge them by.

In their most reliable form the numbers that psychologists use in reporting the measurement of mental traits are numbers that will give one who knows the meaning of them an idea of just what position in the group is occupied by the person who has been tested. They never mean "ounces" of intelligence, or of any other mental trait, but merely indicate just how far above or below average the person really is. As the arbitrary inch is the standard chosen by us by which we measure the length of other things, and the pound, their weight, the standard chosen for mental measurement is the average of the group, whether of six-year-old children or of thirty-year-old men. Every person may be judged mentally as being superior or inferior, and he may be given a numerical score that will be an indication of the distance that separates him from the average of the group to which he belongs. If the average score for a child's intelligence is chosen as 100, as the famous I.Q. or Intelligence Quotient has been so chosen, then any score above means superior and any score below means inferior, and the superiority or inferiority is in proportion to the size of the score. It was due to the fact that we forgot that such a measurement as "fifty pounds" did not tell us how much real "matter" the thing actually contained but only placed it with reference to something else that we may have shown surprise at the use of numbers in mental measurements. The numbers of scientific measurement are always relative wherever they are found. Our system of education had apparently failed to impress that fact upon us, and so created a difficulty for us where there should not have been any.

Another difficulty that has its origin in unscientific thinking arises on the part of both those who blindly enthuse over the merits of intelligence tests and those who ignorantly condemn them. It is concerned with the problem of the constancy of the measurement. There are some who expect to find mental tests so perfect that if a child receives an I.Q. of 100 as the result of a test, he will always receive an I.Q. of exactly 100, without the slightest variation, when tested at any other time. Needless to say they are often disappointed. There are others who have seen the same child tested three or four different times and not obtain exactly the same I.Q. down to the fraction, and then heatedly contend that because of this inconsistency of mental measurements they are not to be compared with physical measurements or even to be considered as scientific measurements at all. When you measure a man's height, they say, you do not get five feet three one minute, and five feet four the next, or one pound of butter on one scale and two pounds on another. Scientific measurements are consistent, they declare, while mental measurements are not, and so are to be considered a different type of thing altogether.

Herein lies another error in every-day thinking: that scientific measurements are of necessity thoroughly consistent. It is not a question here of the degree of consistency that is characteristic of mental and physical measurements, but merely of the implication that physical measurements are always consistent, and so scientific, while mental measurements admittedly are not, and so are unscientific. In regard to the mere lack of consistency there is no difference between physical and mental measurements, they are both inconsistent. When we measure the height of a man on two successive occasions and find that it is the same, say five feet six, the consistency of these two measurements is simply due to the fact that our measuring scale was not divided into small enough units. If, instead of thirty-secondths of an inch, we had sixty-fourths, or hundredths of an inch, or thousandths, or tens of thousandths of an inch, or even smaller units, we should find that probably no two measurements out of a hundred would give the man exactly the same height. If instead of measuring in ounces we measured in millionths of ounces, we probably should not be able to get exactly the same measurement for a pound of butter on two different occasions. When our units are small enough, physical measurements will show inconsistency, but they do not become unscientific for that reason. They even become more scientific.

On the basis of consistency alone, mental measurements are no different from physical measurements. It may turn out to be true, however, that mental tests will prove too greatly inconsistent to be of value, which experiment alone can show, but they are not a different kind of thing from physical measurements merely because of a slight inconsistency, because, in the final analysis, all

measurements are inconsistent and unreliable, if we make the unit small enough.

The merits and demerits of intelligence tests must be judged on the basis of experiment and not blindly accepted or rejected on *a priori* consideration. "If they work" is the acid-test of science, and we may well wonder how education could function in the modern scientific world without leaving this attitude impressed upon the minds of those who have been subject to it. The opinions concerning mental tests are largely formed on the basis of considerations that seem to have had no contact whatever with scientific thinking, and this is true not only of the rank and file of people but even of those who have spent four years in our colleges and universities. When the products of our higher institutions of learning seem not to have grasped even the fundamentals of scientific measurement, mental or physical, we may well ask ourselves if this is a "scientific" age in more than appearance.

Simplification of the Curriculum

By CHARLES F. PRIOR
Fairhaven, Mass.

A PROBLEM that is being urged upon school administrators at the present time is that of simplification of the curriculum. The subject is too large to enable an adequate brief presentation of it in its various aspects. Since, however, it is a matter that needs the clearer understanding which can be secured only by thought and discussion, an effort will be made to present concisely certain general phases of it.

First, who is responsible for the present curriculum? It was made neither by this generation nor the last; it is the product of evolution. It was in its simplest form when the public school was first established and life was simplest; it has grown complex, as life has grown complex. There has rarely been agreement as to just what schools should accomplish for society, and, until there is, there will be difference of opinion as to what the curriculum should be.

There are two aspects of curriculum simplification: One concerns the elimination of subjects now taught; the other deals with the better selection and organization of the content of these subjects so that their essentials may be taught more effectively.

The state and the local school committee determine directly what subjects shall be taught. In Massachusetts, those required by law are: Reading, writing, spelling, English language and grammar, geography, arithmetic, drawing, the history and Constitution of the United States, duties of citizenship, physiology and hygiene, good behavior, indoor and outdoor games and athletic exercises. The law continues: "Such other subjects as the school committee deems expedient may be taught in the public schools." Which of these mandatory subjects ought to be eliminated? If they were presented singly and careful consideration was given to each, I venture to say the answer of the majority of this conference and, also, of people in general would be: None of them ought to be omitted.

There are other subjects quite generally authorized by school committees. Manual training, domestic science, and music are taught in most school systems of the state. Judging by the interest most school patrons display in these subjects, and by the fact that in communities where they are not taught, their absence from the curriculum is generally deplored, and ways and means are being sought of introducing them, I believe that neither the conviction of school administrators nor the opinion of the public would be in favor of their exclusion.

Then there is, also, a group of miscellaneous subjects authorized by school committees. These include such topics as thrift, elementary science, safety, fire prevention, humane education, nature study, etc. There are, perhaps, people who believe that some or all of these are superfluous. In view of the fact, however, that the aggregate of time expended on them in the average school, according to statistics of the National Research Association, is not more than 5 per cent., and in view of their relation to life situations, it is hardly possible that the majority of people would eliminate these. Their mere enumeration as parts of the curriculum gives an exaggerated idea of the relative position they occupy.

It is quite possible that more such subjects will be advocated. For illustration: Colonel Lindbergh stated at the National Education Association convention that elementary aeronautics should be taught. It may be that in the course of time some of these topics now taught will disappear and be replaced by others. Although such subjects may take some time, there is value in their presentation and, unless they absorb more than 5 per cent. of school effort, they are not problems of too serious import in the consideration of curriculum simplification. Not many more of these subjects can be introduced, however, for they do tend to dissipate, somewhat, the attention and energy of teachers.

The complaint is made that the time given in the elementary schools to the newer subjects is so great that the results in the fundamentals are not as good as they were in the past. A recent sur-

vey shows that, even with such additions to the curriculum as have been made, 65 per cent. of the child's time in school is put on the three R's, history, geography, and science. Certainly, if time is the only factor in securing results, this is enough to spend teaching what some are pleased to call the fundamentals.

Do facts show that the fundamentals are being taught less efficiently? There is, perhaps, insufficient objective evidence to prove conclusively any answer to this question. What facts there are, however, tend to prove that results in the fundamentals are better than ever. Examination papers with answers which were given fifty or more years ago have been found in several cities. These same tests have been taken by pupils of about the same age and grade in modern schools. In spelling, arithmetic, geography, and writing a marked improvement over the results of the past was found to have been made. It is perfectly natural to think that apples were redder in the old days; that the pie that mother made was better; that circus elephants were larger, that the weather was colder, and that schools were better, but such facts as we have, comparing the results of the past with those of the present, indicate that success in teaching the fundamentals is considerably better now than then. Those of us who have followed closely the work of our own children in the schools are free to admit that it is much higher in quality and quantity in every subject than we were able to do.

Good as the results may be, they are, nevertheless, not satisfactory. There is no teacher or school administrator who believes this to be the case. Earnest efforts are being made to improve them, and one of these efforts is along the line of simplification of the curriculum from another point of view than elimination of subjects. This aspect of the question deals, as has been said, with the better selection and organization of the content of the present subjects, so that their essentials may be taught more effectively. Curriculum committees, local, state and national, are working everywhere on this problem. Through research the demands of public education are being analyzed and scientific thinking is being applied to the problems of meeting them. Among the conclusions already arrived at through investigation Dr. Broome, chairman of the Curriculum Revision Committee of the N. E. A., listed the following in a report in 1925:—

"That considerable more arithmetic is taught than adult life requires; that there is too much time wasted in learning to spell hundreds of words that the child will meet only in spelling books; that oral reading is over-emphasized; that much reading matter, valueless as literature, is still read for purposes of drill; that writing is carried in many schools beyond the point of utility in these days when most writing is done on a machine; that in history there is too much emphasis on battles, campaigns, and military heroes, and not enough on political, social, educational, industrial and spiritual development of the nation; that appreciation is not sufficiently emphasized in the teaching of music and art; and that much of the hand work is of the 'exercise' type instead of being vital constructive work that grows out of and into the actual life of pupils." Some of these conclusions were being applied in a degree previous to the date of this report. They are all important factors to be considered in the simplification of the curriculum. They will influence what we teach in school more and more as teachers, school administrators, textbook makers, and the public understand and feel their force. This phase of simplification of the curriculum will furnish material for thought and discussion by every one engaged in educational work for years to come.

The question of simplifying the high school curriculum has not been touched. The subjects taught are not mandatory. The school committee determines what they are. Only one or two considerations relative thereto will be offered. The enrollment in the high school has increased 700 per cent. in the last thirty-five years. Pupils are going to high school who would never have dreamed of doing so in the old days. It is no longer exclusively a college preparatory school. Only 8 per cent. go on to any other institution of higher learning. The needs of the 92 per cent. must be met. That is why so many new activities and new subjects have been introduced. Perhaps not all of them will survive the test of experience, but the only means of knowing is by trying.

In regard to the whole question of new subjects and new activities, especially the latter, which are finding a place in both elementary and secondary schools, it may be said that various purposes have led to their introduction but, in the words of Dr. Bonser, applied in a different connection, however, they are in a considerable degree:—

"To remedy the almost intolerable bookishness and abstract character of public school education.

"In school after school we found children bored almost to melancholy or discouraged to the point of outright failure by having nothing to make their instruction interesting, natural, or meaningful. They were deluged with books and words, words and books. More than ten per cent. of the children in the elementary schools of this country are now repeating grades. Most children have little capacity for abstract thinking. Children can memorize words, and because they do this with some degree of success we fool ourselves into thinking they understand what they memorize and will apply it in life. That there have been an average of 1,700 business failures a month in the United States during the last twelve years, and that but little of what students presumably have

learned in school is applied in life, are evidences that education must be more concrete and realistic if it is to be as useful and effective as it should be."

Any right solution of the problem of curriculum simplification will depend quite largely on whether the local community can be brought to know and understand sympathetically the real needs and capacities of children. If it can, it will become interested, and will be devoted enough to make provision for them to the extreme limit of its financial ability.

The Use and Abuse of Notebooks

By A. W. BURR
Beloit College, Wisconsin

HANDED in papers and notebooks have become a large part of all school training. Written questions under the "contract method" have made the hand rather than the tongue the instrument of school expression, the eye rather than the ear the gateway to knowledge. The silence of "contract method" classrooms is becoming much like that of a class of deaf-mutes.

The purposes of papers and notebooks are so various, their uses and values so different that their misuse and excessive use are easy, and blindness as to what they do for the learner is common. They are supposed to give evidence of study and of knowledge, but they are certain evidence only of manual effort and word association. They may be as empty of meaning and of thinking as are memorized words, and without the mental effort of memorizing.

TYPES of PAPERS

What are the types of handed-in papers and notebooks and what are their uses and values?

1. To correct and supplement the deficiencies of all oral classroom work, whether it be lecture and explanation by the instructor, or oral presentation by the learner.

2. To give the learner training for his part in the paper world of today.

The papers of the learner may be of three types. (1) The words of book or lecture which he copies at the suggestion of a given question or topic; (2) the words of book or lecture which he has memorized and writes by recall; (3) the words of book or lecture whose thought after study he restates, repictures, finds some use for, or relates to other thought.

The revelation of the learner in the first is that he sees some connection of the question and the answer in the words copied, unless it is a copy of another's seeing.

In the second he sees the connection and has fixed the words for recall.

In the last, the paper shows that the learner has by study so made the thought his own that at suggestion of question or topic he can give any part of it in his own words, or give its relation to other thought, or some use or application of it.

The uses of the first, finding answers to copy, are: as a guide to young or slow-minded learners, or upon taking up a new field of study; or as a preparation or basis for oral recitation, and discussion and comparison in class; or for gathering data for writing a paper of the second or third class. It is not to be the one form of preparation as in the "contract method." It will be of especial value in English, and in foreign language forms. It may be required of some members of a class more than of others.

The uses of the second, the recall type of paper, are: to help insure the committing of principles, definitions, or forms; to insure in large classes regular work by all by their writing for five or ten minutes now and then on one or more questions assigned previously or at the time. The probability of it prevents the slackness where an oral recitation would come once or twice a week.

The values are an inspection of the class on the possession of data necessary for advance with profit to a new topic or field, the prevention of carelessness about daily preparation in large classes. The first is the usual written test or examination. Both may have a grade mark.

The uses of the third or original type of paper are: relating to others a personal experience, what the learner saw or felt in some event, or in reading a book, this is a composition or essay; giving the learner's experience with a problem, or project, a use of thought found, this is organization of gathered thought upon a subject into an essay or thesis; the restatement of the thought of a page or book; an outline or abridgment; a repicturing of an author's experience by the use of the suggestive question: "What did you see?"

Answers and notes of this type will reveal the learner's acquaintance with book or page in thought, not merely with the words, as the first two types may. They will reveal individual differences, put the brightest to their best in a more helpful way than the choice of grades of work.

The "contract" paper or notebook that has not a large percentage of this type of question is not worth the effort of the learner, nor the care of the teacher, and is school drudgery for both.

ONLY A PART OF TEACHING

But papers of any type must always be only a part and not a major part of the teaching and

learning process. *Teaching is a teacher and a class, each finding what the other knows and each finding more to know.* It is a commerce of teaching and learning minds.

A paper is only a teacher finding what a learner knows, and doing that by a slow, laborious effort for both, and imperfectly at that. It is not the learner finding out what the teacher knows, nor what his mates know. It is not both finding more to know. A sole dependence upon papers makes learners and teachers a classroom of *deaf mutes.* The learner must keep still when he studies, and must recite with a pencil. It is no wonder that such a classroom experience is not pleasurable for the learner.

Papers and notebooks have an important part in the educative process, but there are only two sources of a paper, copying what another has said or written, or the mind of the writer of the paper in action with thought. The instructor who requires paper or notebook and does not know what type he is calling for, nor what it is for, and does not know whether it does what it is for when given, has no business to ask for many papers.

The great need in three-fourths of our classrooms is a teacher who studies the mechanics of the action of mind upon mind in the classroom and out of it, who takes not more summer courses in subject, but more in ways of putting the subject across to boys and girls, more daily asking: "What will they do if I do this?"

It is time to ask if there is not some failure in the teaching when boys and girls do not study under it, if all that can now be done is to keep them mute with paper and pencil.

WHAT IS THE CLASSROOM FOR?

The end of the classroom is inquiry and answer, both oral and written, by teacher and learner, not the inquiry and answer that only repeats or copies from book or lecture, but that sometimes recalls, "What is an island, John?" that restates, "How would you say it, Henry?" that pictures, "What did you see, Mary?" that finds some use, "How would you go to an island, George?" that relates an instance to its general or whole, pointing to Cuba, "What is that, Julia?" "Why do you call it an island?" "Why does that make it an island?" All bodies of land . . . are islands.

The average high school and college instructor goes no farther with required papers and notebooks than to ask for copies of what has been said or printed. Elaborate notebooks are evidences only of time spent and much manual labor of copying. Any trace in them of the thinking of restatement, of repicturing, of use, or of relation of instance to a whole is too rare.

Most of lecture taking is a wasteful use of classroom time for the undergraduate. It puts on him the double task of following unfamiliar thought and of giving the thought at the same time some kind of written form. The result is the learner learns little and the instructor does not instruct. In this day of the easy manifolding of manuscript, if the lecture is worth it, the student can be given the lecture with references, and then after study both may be the ground for inquiry and discussion by both instructor and class. That is how mind sharpens mind, as iron sharpenth iron; that is what the classroom is for.

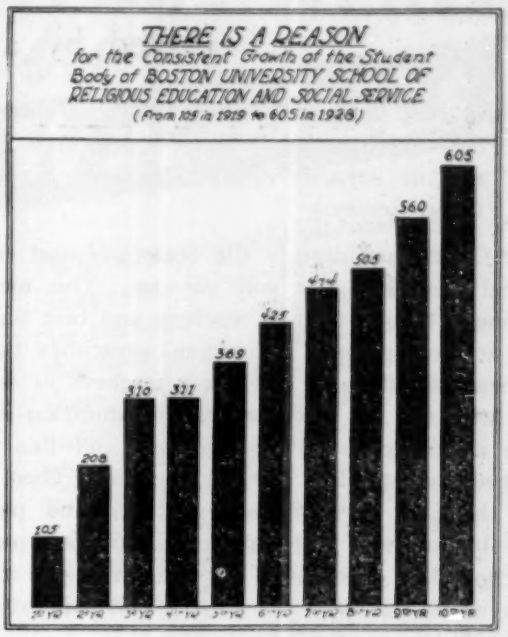
The purpose of the classroom is not met if all inquiry, oral and written, is by the teacher, and all answer is by the learner. Pen and paper are also for inquiry by the learner. The experience of the learner out of the classroom is to ask, inquire. Why reverse the procedure in the classroom, both teacher and learner hiding their ignorance from each other, each afraid that the other will ask a question that he cannot answer? The teacher has an unfair advantage if he asks all the questions.

What every classroom needs is a change of roles, sometimes and often. There is no better use of pen and paper in the "Educative Process" than their use by the learner in preparing a set of questions for mates and teacher.

"I CAN'T TEACH AND CORRECT PAPERS TOO."

But some teacher says: "I can't teach my large classes and read and mark their papers too." That is true, if it is meant that all papers handed in are to be read, corrected, marked, and handed back. There is no greater abuse of teachers, no effort

(Continued on page 509)



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School Problems

Edited by a School Executive

112. How can we steer pupils from the classical into the vocational course when they have not the capacity to do the classical work? (New Jersey.)

First, we must dignify the vocational and commercial work in every way we can. This means the finest, highest-trained teachers and best buildings and equipment. We have sometimes made a mistake in the past in hiring teachers in these lines who did not have equivalent education with those in the classical departments, and this has lessened the standing of the courses. Then we must have a very efficient guidance and placement bureau that not only cares for our pupils in school but outside. They must not get away from us in the first year out. This will attract pupils into the work.

Pride of parents and fashion will, however, still send many people into classical courses and even here we can do much to help. With better teaching, more carefully planned curriculums and individual assistance many of our slower pupils could get much of our classical culture. Interest and perseverance are mighty aids in helping out a capacity not quite a hundred per cent. and it is our duty to see that these people get every chance to fulfill this desire for culture which seems to them so important. This faith in education is pathetic and calls to all the effort and ingenuity we possess. The new attitude of some of our colleges in not only taking credits non-classical as entrance value but carrying on many vocational and commercial courses after the student gets into college is going to be of great value in changing the attitude of the common people toward the high school courses.

113. Do you believe we are training our youth for the "musts of life," or are we making duty-dodgers of them? (Illinois.)

If by the "musts of life" you mean a blind acceptance of past conventions, the answer is no. We certainly are not. But if on the other hand you mean a weighing of the rights of all and a carrying of your end of the load the answer is yes. In spite of all that is said of youth's lawlessness and selfishness they are not dodging duty nor anything else. They are staggeringly frank and fearless and sometimes selfish, but never dodging. They face facts and keep a bargain. They are not willing to accept any "must of life" on the say so of a past generation. That is sure. But once they see it is the decent, fair thing to do, as the boys say, "they come across."

I know there are spots in American education where there seems to be an overwhelming prejudice against coercion, and in view of past domineerance it is not to be wondered at. Coercion, after all, is a low method of attaining result and inspires no ideals or right attitudes. Removal of all coercion with no substitute is the cause of much of youth's lawlessness. Youth does not want all coercion removed. He is willing to abide by the decision of the majority of his fellows. That is one reason why sports and student government have such a hold on him. He agrees beforehand to abide by the decision and he keeps his bargain. He rebels against the law "because I said so," freely and frankly. That is largely a sign of his courage. When he feels sure we understand him and his viewpoint and that our sole purpose is to guide and protect him he usually listens. The "musts of life" are different to him, but I am not at all afraid of his growing up to be a "duty dodger."

114. What do you consider necessary preparation for a visiting teacher? (Kentucky.)

By this question I suppose you mean necessary training and experience. Visiting teachers do best when they have had both teaching experience and social work. They need to have had courses in child psychology and mental hygiene as many of their cases are problem children, and in order to interpret home and school difficulties they need to be able to get back scientific causes. Their advice is of little value unless based on some scientific knowledge. They need some training and study in sociology in order to get on with all kinds of people.

Classroom experience with further study and experience in social work is a fine foundation for the visiting teacher.

115. What do you think of the policy of members of a school board to take complaints and requests outside board meetings? (Conn.)

It is a very bad one and leads to trouble usually. If a member of a board receives a complaint or request he should refer the maker to the superintendent for temporary adjustment. If the citizen is not satisfied with results he can file his complaint or request for consideration at a regular board meeting. The day of "stone box conferences" with school board men is past.

The Use and Abuse of Notebooks

(Continued from page 507)

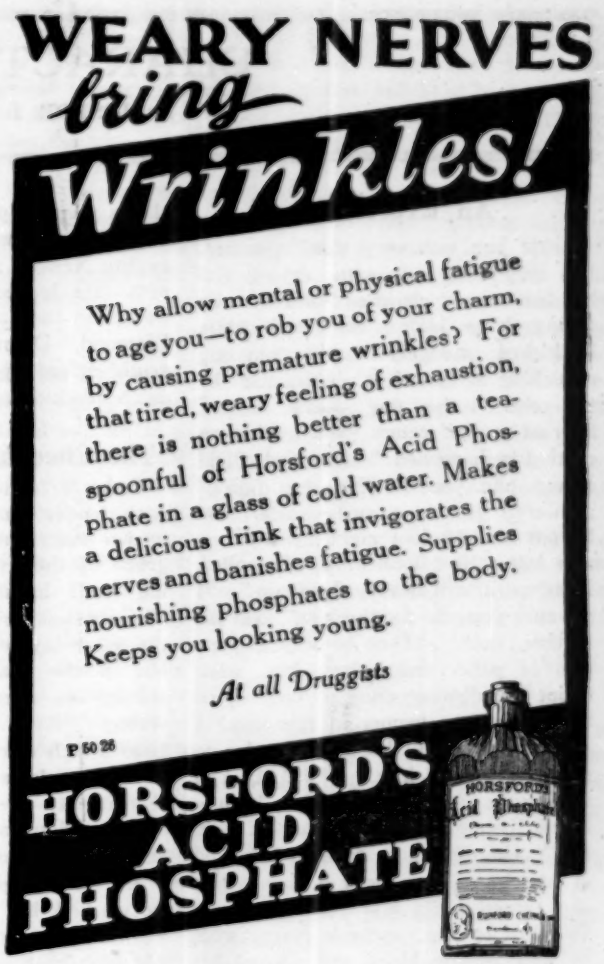
for the learner more futile than this practice in our schools. The great value of a paper is in writing it, not in its being read, corrected and marked by a teacher, just as the value of an oral recitation is not in the reciting, but in the learning of something to recite. The reciting is a help to the learner to do his best in learning.

Any teacher would do well, would help all his class to learn, if he should get an oral recitation from a third or a half of a large class each day, and surely, if what third or half would recite next day was uncertain. Why not treat papers in the same way? The reading of a dozen papers taken by chance would reveal what faults and excellences to stress with the class. We do best by having an aim, and not by looking back at what we have done.

Moreover, if a learner is wrong in oral recitation, the wise teacher asks another to correct. Why not pass papers to three or four of the class to mark errors as their work for the next day? A change of roles again, good for teacher and learner.

Again, let me say from many years of observation that the greatest cause of failure in classrooms is an ignorance of what boys and girls are doing and will do, with the ways of their teachers.

The three questions in requiring papers and notebooks are: "What are they for?" "Will they do what they are for?" "Did they do what they were for?"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["The Foundations of Education." A Survey of Principles and Projects. By J. J. Findlay, University of Manchester, England. Volume Two, "The Practice of Education." Cloth. 382 pages. New York: Henry Holt and Company.]

WE READ a book on education by an English schoolmaster with exceptional interest because his approach to any phase of education has a traditional personality, a common-sense thrill rare with American schoolmen. We know of no other man in any country today who has the same classic chimes in his educational sentiment that J. J. Findlay has. We do not know any other writer who would say: "The teacher at work has to forget psychology as resolutely as the surgeon forgets his anatomy when he comes directly to face the operation." "Analytical psychology, in fact, even when sound, has only a very general relation to the complex, synthetic behavior witnessed in real life. . . . The textbooks, as a rule, offer types of teaching; the student who studies these no doubt learns some psychology, but when he enters the classroom he does not find the types, rather he finds them all, since the pupils are at once perceiving, conceiving, constructing—going through the whole gamut of mental processes in five minutes. . . . The new and rapidly evolving doctrines offered to teachers for twenty years past in the name of psychology have close relation to corporate life, to individual development, but scarcely pretend to elucidate lesson-giving except in a destructive sense. . . . The teacher may become the victim of devices and nostrums, advertised as infallible recipes. . . . General principles of behavior are realities, and if these are ignored your specialist rides for a fall in spite of enthusiasm and energy."

The refusal of Rev. Dr. Charles E. Jefferson, pastor of Broadway Tabernacle, New York City, to accept a raise in salary from $10,000 to $12,500, which would be the largest ministerial salary in the United States, has brought to light the statement that only two salaries as great as $12,000 are being paid to ministers, the highest being paid to Dr. S. Parkes Cadman, Central Church, Brooklyn, $12,300, and Rev. Harry P. Dewey, Plymouth Church, Minneapolis. We venture a Yankee guess that Dr. Cadman's other professional incomes of a religious nature would give him quite a respectable standing among other professions.

CHARACTER CHATS

By JOSEPH B. EGAN, A. M.

An Experience

Little Jim was very much put out. His eyes were red with crying and his fists were clenched and he was saying things under his breath while he kicked savagely at the old dog crouching at his feet. Attracted by the yelps of the dog Jim's mother hurried to the scene. "Why, what on earth has happened?" she cried. "Did Rover bite you?" "No, he didn't," answered Jim in a surly voice, "but he put his old foot right through my new kite. Now look at it, all spoiled. I know it will never fly again." "I am sure you can fix the kite," said his mother, sadly. "That is only a question of paper and glue, but what about the damage done to your spirit by losing your temper in this way? I am sure that will be much harder to fix than any old kite." "Well, he had no business wrecking my kite," blubbered Jim. "I kicked him well for it, too." Jim's mother stood and looked at her angry son for a moment, then she turned sadly and walked away followed by the miserable Rover who, in spite of the kicks, still loved his little master. That night, when Jim was cozily tucked away in bed, his mother sat down near him and said:—

"Not many years ago lived a great scientist named Isaac Newton. He was a man who made kites and flew them to learn the secrets of the air; he made waterclocks and sundials and hundreds of other things for the purpose of discovering some hidden secret or other. One day, while walking in a garden, he saw an apple fall from a tree. Instead of picking it up, he stood with his chin in his hand and looked at it. Out of its fall he had learned the truth about the great law of gravitation that governs the universe to the farthest star. This was a wonderful discovery and from that day all men honored Newton and looked up to him. Of course this great man was not satisfied with what he had done. He wanted to learn more and more about the wonderful world in which he lived. He spent his days and nights thinking and searching and writing down his discoveries on slips of paper. One day he went for a walk in his garden, leaving his precious writings scattered about on his table. When he returned he was amazed to see his little dog, Diamond, sitting on the table top, with a huge bottle of ink upset beside him. Newton gave a cry of alarm and grief. The ink had spread over all his precious papers, blotting out the work of many weary years. Then the mighty Newton showed his real greatness. He looked sadly at his ruined work and then at the little dog. 'Ah, Diamond, Diamond,' he said, in a gentle voice, 'you little know how much mischief you have done!'"

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The Cheerfulness of Nature

Today I found a lilac bush covered with tender buds. Under the dark brown outer husks the delicate pale green of the living leaves was showing itself in slender crescent slices. The air was cold about the buds and the snow lay on the ground beneath, but in the heart of the bush was shining the warmth and gentleness of spring. As I stood looking at the buds a little chick-a-dee bounced down out of an elm and with a merry good morning to the whole world began busily pecking away at the gray scale that lived upon the lilac branches. True, he was getting his breakfast as he worked, but his work was the doing of happy, needful things for the old bush that bore the buds. Thus it is in the world about us, all things are doing their level best to live up to the expectations of their own nature. The lilac is anxious to burst open its brown buds and spread its deep green leaves upon the air; the violet beside the rock is planning a pretty surprise for some fine April day; the rose-bush, leaning so wearily over the gate, is not weary at all, but is dreaming of perfumed days to come which it shall glorify with crimson dreams come true. Man, alone, as he stumbles heedlessly along, does not seem to know whether roses or thorns are expected of him. One day he brightens the earth with a shower of happy words or a flutter of smiles and the next he darkens it with his frown.

Imagine the buds of the lilac bush complaining because the days of spring do not come fast enough. Imagine a rosebud curling its pretty lips as you pass in an ugly sneer. Imagine the blue eye of a violet full of hatefulness and wrath; imagine a chick-a-dee out of patience because the frost is nipping at his toes. Nature forever sets man an example in cheerfulness under difficulty, and patience under trying times. In nature man finds not only beauty, but all other worthwhile things for him to imitate; cheerfulness, and joy and patience and good workmanship from tiniest bud to gayest butterfly; from smallest grain of sand to the uplifted peaks of some far mountain range.

The Village of the Dog Shades

(From the Esquimo.)

The wife of the young chief was very beautiful, but instead of a warm heart she had a piece of ice within her breast. Since she could not show her cruel nature to her husband or her husband's family, she bent all her wrath upon the poor, faithful dogs who drew the long sleds and kept guard over her sleep. Whenever one crouched down at the low entrance to the igloo to get a whiff of the food being cooked within, he was driven off with a heavy blow of her long stick, and whenever one lifted his friendly head for a caress he received, instead, a sharp slap of her mittened hand. One day a fever came upon the young wife and before dawn rose again she was dead. For a time she lay in a deep sleep and then some one seized her by the arm and said: "Get up! Get up! Don't you know that you are dead?" Instantly she looked about and saw that she was indeed dead, and that it was the shade of her grandfather who stood near shaking her by the arm. "Come with me," said he. "We have a long way to go." So she rose and went with him and they passed along the shores of the sea and then crossed the tundra to a large lake on the offside shore of which rose the smoke of a village. On the lake was a canoe called the Ghost's canoe, and in it was the Ghost himself. In no time at all the two shades were paddled across and left on the beautiful grassy shore. They went at once to the village. It was full of beautiful dogs which came up to them with friendly eyes and wagging tails. The young woman raised her hands to beat them off when her grandfather said sternly: "Do not do that! Instead, enter that igloo." When the chief's wife entered the igloo, a woman, within, who looked much like she used to look, delt her a heavy blow with a long stick, shrieking as she did so: "What do you want in here?" the very same words she had used so often in driving out a freezing dog. The chief's wife hurried out of the hut and ran crying to her grandfather. "It is all as it should be," said he, "for this is the village of the dog shades and you are sent here because you carried about in your breast a lump of ice instead of a warm heart. Now you see exactly how living dogs feel when beaten by cruel people." So saying her

grandfather disappeared and the chief's wife was left alone in the village of the shadowy dogs.

Now it happened that the young chief mourned bitterly for his dead wife. Early one morning, many moons after she had been buried, he put on his best clothing and walked away on the Death trail. He went on and on for a day and night and at last came to a flat stone on the edge of a great lake. He saw a village on the opposite shore and, on the lake itself, the Ghost's canoe with the Ghost in it paddling it about.

"Come over and get me," he cried, but the Ghost did not even glance his way. "Come over and get me," he shouted louder than before, but still the Ghost paid no heed to him. "Isn't it strange," he thought to himself, "I want to get across, but no one hears me shout." As he thought the words the Ghost sat up straight, looked his way and then paddled towards him. He could hear the whisper but not the shouted words. . . they approached the village a crowd of people came out to greet them, and in the very front of the crowd was his beloved wife. "Bring something to eat," whispered one person, but his wife whispered so only he could hear: "Do not eat a thing or you will never go back to earth again." That night the two entered the Ghost canoe and were paddled across the lake and set down on the flat rock. It was a long journey back across the tundra and beside the shore of the sea, but the second night they reached home in safety. The chief's son went into his father's hut first and said: "I have brought back my wife." "Bring her right in," said the chief, so he brought her in, but nobody could see anything except a dark shadow of a person that followed him. "Have her sit down," said the chief, so she sat down and her husband put a marten skin robe around her, and it stood up in the air with nothing but the shadow of a person in it. "Give her something to eat," said the chief, but when she ate only the spoon could be seen going up and down. Now it happened as the young woman ate a dog came into the hut. He was a kind dog with soft eyes. "Ah! now I shall see whether this is my son's wife," said the chief to himself. "If she beats the dog she is the same woman."

To the surprise of the chief the spoon was held out to the dog so that he could lap from it with his red tongue. "This is strange," said the chief to his son, "for your wife always beat the dogs with sticks. This woman feeds them out of her own spoon." Then the young woman spoke and her voice was like a bird singing on a high totem pole.

"It is wrong, father of my husband," said the voice, "to give blows to anything that loves us. That I have learned bitterly in the village of the shadowy dogs." Now the story of these words spread abroad through the village and men grew kinder to their dumb friends from that moment.

Not many moons later the young chief and his wife went away, far away to a new country where birds sang and flowers blossomed and the sun never set but went round and round in the blue sky forever.

The Witch and the Prince

A wicked witch hated a young prince so much that she wished to ruin him. Because she was so very powerful she was able to order his life for him without his knowledge so that not only he but all his friends thought his misfortunes the result of his own way of living.

"I shall first break his spirit," said the witch, and therefore she caused a rebellion among his subjects. The prince was captured and exiled from his country and left to wander penniless through strange lands. By nature the prince was not over-active, being fond of pleasure and riotous living, but under the pressure of his exile he set to work as an humble corn-grinder and developed such strength of purpose and strength of arm that when the witch went to gloat over him she found that instead of harming him she had done him great good.

"I shall afflict him," said the witch, "with a painful illness," whereupon she so twisted his legs with rheumatism that he could scarcely walk. Nevertheless, the prince toiled at his task day in and day out, without complaint and without bitterness, and thus developed, in a short while, a great spirit of determination that shone in his eye and gave nobility even to his crippled body.

When the witch saw all this she was much grieved, for instead of disspiriting the prince she had built up for him a soul hardened in suffering and able to endure without complaint.

"I shall ruin his reputation," said the witch. "That will break his spirit, no doubt." Whereupon she caused evil reports to go abroad which caused his fellow workmen to shun the prince as they would the plague. Knowing the injustice of the reports and his own innocence the prince faced his accusers with a strong spirit, and instead of hiding himself bore himself so proudly that men began to speak of him in whispers as being possessed of a spirit beyond the ordinary.

When the witch found that instead of breaking his spirit the evil reports had merely served to lend nobility to his character, she was grieved and said: "It is evident that misfortune but serves to endow him with every noble quality. I shall try the opposite. I shall see what good fortune will do to him, perchance he will waste himself in riotous living," whereupon the witch caused another rebellion to spring up which returned the prince to the throne of his fathers. Now the prince had suffered so much that the sight of riches afflicted him. He had grown so accustomed to coarse clothing that the touch of silk irritated him. He had developed such strength of arm that the white fingers of the gentlemen of his court angered him, whereupon he spent the royal treasure in great public works, dressed himself in coarse garments, and set all his court to work with the result that the kingdom prospered beyond all dreams, and he himself became known far and wide for his noble leadership.

When the witch learned all this she was so angry that she beat her black cat soundly and broke off the handle of her broom, thus depriving herself of all her own powers.

A Farewell

Once in a while we come across a poem of such sweet beauty that the very reading of it stirs the heart like the clear song of a wild bird in spring. There is a reason for this, for, in a very real way, poets and birds are much alike. The bird soars into the clear sky, the poet mounts on wings of fancy above the dark earth. The bird goes on its long pilgrimage to summer climes, the poet wanders away into the sunlit, delightful regions of the soul; the bird sings for the sheer love of song, the poet sings because of song within his soul. From the speckled egg in the high nest, the bearer of a new song flies forth, and, from the verses of the poet, ideals wing their glad messages across the spiritland of man. The following poem is a sweet song, beautiful in itself and beautiful in the thought that it releases to the inner ears of man.

A FAREWELL
Charles Kingsley

My fairest child, I have no song to give you;
No lark could pipe to skies so dull and gray;
Yet, if you will, one quiet hint I'll leave you
For every day.

I'll tell you how to sing a clearer carol
Than lark who hails the dawn on breezy down;
To earn yourself a surer poet's laurel
Than Shakespeare's crown.

Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever.
Do noble things, not dream them, all day long;
And so make life, death, and that vast forever
One grand, sweet song.

EDUCATION IN ACTION

Psychology Called Help to Educators

Psychology is the ultimate source of fundamental assumption in education, believes Professor Frank N. Freeman, of the University of Chicago. "It is sometimes said that philosophy and sociology determine the aims or ends of education and that psychology studies the means by which these ends may be attained," he declares. "If we pursue analysis far enough, we shall discover that the ends themselves are discovered through psychological study. Modern investigations in psychology, for example, enable us to analyze the conduct of children to discover the causes of good and bad conduct and to apply the appropriate remedies. We find that conduct is improved not so much by the appeal to abstract principles as by an analysis of the motives of individuals and a psychological explanation of their attitude. An analysis of other problems, such as the choice of subjects in the curriculum or the classification of children into ability groups, shows that these problems may be solved not by means of speculation, but by a direct study of the result upon the children of the various procedures which we may adopt."

Students in Search For Precise Words

A search for words precisely descriptive of various often-recurring conditions and occasions for which the average vocabulary holds no ready appellation has been started among students of the University of California. The recorder has asked for a word to describe students who are behind in their studies. They have been called "delinquents" and "defectives," but neither seems appropriate. "Just what shall we call them?" asks Dr. Ernest C. Moore, director of the university. Another word sought is one which will describe those who do more than is required of them. Generous, foolish, wise, honest, and avaricious have all been suggested, but seem more expressions of opinion concerning the diligent worker than descriptive of his status.

Children Taught House Construction

Teaching young Americans to build miniature houses, from sills, beams and joists to rafters and weatherboarding, is regarded by the national committee on wood utilization of the Department of Commerce, as an effective blow to "jerry builders" and others who palm off cheap homes on the inexperienced. "In the preparation of the diminutive lumber," the committee says, "the boy, or even the adult, learns practical lessons in the proper utilization of building materials, which is necessary if we are to insure abundant future supplies of wood through profitable commercial reforestation." How to teach the future home buyer to discriminate between good and bad construction has long been a problem, it says, urging schoolroom classes in woodcraft on the theory that young builders will gain knowledge of construction to guard them against the cheap builder who "palms off homes that are unsatisfactory, poorly-constructed and poor bargains, altogether."

Persian Minister Objects To Bible Teaching

A development disturbing to important foreign investments in Persia was the insistence of the Ministry of Education upon closer adherence by foreign schools to the curricula of similar Persian institutions. Particularly obnoxious, from the viewpoint of foreign missionary educators, is the demand that students be instructed in the Chariet or Islamic law, which contains a number of teachings repugnant to Christians. Equally important is the ministry's objection to the teaching of the Bible. Schools maintained by foreign mission boards in the United States or Europe naturally contend that to omit Bible study from their school work would be untenable. Prolonged negotiations having produced no results, the American school at Hamadan, sponsored by the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions of the United States of America, closed its doors early in December. All other foreign schools still functioned at the close of the year, and it was hoped that some way would be found leading out of the impasse. The budget of the Ministry of Education provides for six normal schools in provincial centres, and for a number of new primary schools. They probably will be ready to receive pupils some time in 1928, according to Orsen N. Nielsen, American consul at Teheran, Persia.

Harvard Alumni Plan Educational Films

A group of Harvard alumni has obtained a Massachusetts charter to form the University Film Foundation to produce educational and scientific films in collaboration with the staff of Harvard University. The assistance of specialists in other fields also will be had from other institutions and organizations. All the films made by the new organization will be available to schools, colleges, libraries, museums, churches and clubs throughout the United States. The foundation will begin by producing a series of films based upon the fundamentals of the more common arts and sciences. In the list are botany, chemistry, zoology, geology, physics, geography, anthropology, astronomy and fine arts. An agreement has been made whereby Harvard will permit the foundation to use from time to time such college equipment and background as are necessary for production of the films.

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"Bad Boy" 40 Years Ago Rewards Kind Teacher

G. A. Hartmetz, retired banker of Evansville, Ind., used to be a bad boy in school and got innumerable "lickings." Then he became the pupil of Miss Anne O'Flynn. She understood him. She didn't whip him. She prized him as a pupil. He never forgot it. That was forty years ago. Recently a representative of a railroad called on Miss O'Flynn and arranged a trip to California, Mr. Hartmetz to foot the bill. Miss O'Flynn taught in Evansville for more than fifty years. "I only whipped four boys in all that time," she said. "And they were big fellows, too. But then, you know, I'm Irish. When I whipped I whipped."

Home Making Revealed As Greek to Most Girls

American school girls spend entirely too much time wrestling with Greek translations and integral calculus and too little learning how to become efficient home makers, wives and mothers, according to a nation-wide survey on conditions under which home economics is taught in the United States, just completed by the General Federation of Women's Clubs, through the division of home economics teaching, of which Mrs. Joseph C. Gawler of Yakima, Wash., is chairman. "Of the eligible enrollment in the states reporting, representing every section of the country, but from sixteen to fifty per cent. are taking home economics courses," reports Mrs. Gawler, "yet practically ninety per cent. of these girls will be home makers. If school funds are limited, as they usually are, traditional courses are first provided for. Often equipment is inadequate and the superintendents whose conception of home economics is sewing and cooking, employ as teachers practical women in preference to trained ones. Salaries are seldom commensurate with training requisites and work required. Courses are said to need improving and reorganizing to include mothercraft, child training, hygiene, household management and parental education."

Ethics Training Gains in Hawaii

There are ninety men and women teachers in the schools of Honolulu who believe that religious education should be made a part of child training if boys and girls are to become good citizens. These ninety are working some twelve hours a day in twelve city public school centres. This is the third year week-day schools of religion have been conducted in Honolulu. The first year seven schools were established, with 52 classes, the second year there were 10 schools with 75 classes, and this year there are 12 with 90 classes. Enrollment totals about 3,000 children of all races and religious faiths. Although entirely Christian, the instruction is non-sectarian, according to Logan A. Pruitt, director of the religious schools.

Nautical School For New Jersey

One of the legislative measures approved recently by Governor Moore of New Jersey authorized establishment of a state nautical school. A ship will be turned over to New Jersey by the Federal Government for training purposes. The Governor and each of the eighty-one members of the Legislature may make one appointment to the school. As the appropriation bill does not contain a grant for the school, it is not likely to be put in operation until next year.

Germans to Study Our School System

Thirty German educators, visiting America under the auspices of the Zentralinstitut, of Berlin, and the International Institute of Teachers' College, Columbia University, have arrived in this country for the most comprehensive tour of American schools ever undertaken by a group of foreign educators. The group's tour of inspection will last until July 1. Elementary schools, junior and senior high schools, colleges and universities, will be visited in New York, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, Missouri, Tennessee, North Carolina, the District of Columbia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Connecticut and Massachusetts. Dr. Franz Nilker, of the Zentralinstitut, and Professors M. C. Del Manzo and Thomas Alexander, of the International Institute, will be in charge of the tour.

North Carolina Students Form Mutual Association

"Young Tar Heel Farmers," a new organization among students of vocational agriculture in North Carolina, has local chapters in 110 communities in sixty-five counties, with a total membership of about 5,000. The fourfold purpose of the organization is to encourage thrift; to foster love for country life and promote rural leadership; to further the application of intelligence and business principles in farming; and to provide recreational, social, and educational entertainment for students of vocational agriculture.

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TREND OF THE TIMES

CITY MANAGERSHIP in America has celebrated its twentieth anniversary. The new regime has taken hold in city after city until some 375 have experienced what it means to be run like a private corporation with a business manager at the head. A new profession also has been evolved, and a technique of city managership developed. Managers vary in age from twenty-one to seventy years and their salaries range from $1,500 to $25,000 a year.

NINETEEN CHURCH denominations have more than $100,000,000 in permanent funds for preachers' pensions, declared Dr. J. B. Hingeley of the Methodist Episcopal Board of Pensions and Relief. In 1927 more than $8,000,000 was distributed to 27,516 ministers and widows, the largest group being Methodist Episcopal, which had 8,458 beneficiaries, who received $3,250,000.

POOR LIGHT may help breed criminals, declares Dr. W. T. Bovie of Northwestern University. "People in the tropics invariably are more cheerful than those living in less sunny places, and in all probability it is the stimulating effect of the light which is largely responsible," he asserted.

DIAMOND business has become so highly competitive and the American tariff is so high that half of the millions of dollars' worth of the gems sold annually in the United States are smuggled into the country, according to the American consul at Antwerp. "The only possible solution is a reduction in American import duties," he said, "that would make smuggling unprofitable, and the organization of a 'diamond squad' under the treasury that could trace smuggling even at its source."

COAL MINING has not increased in prosperity with other industries because science has been improving combustion until, for example, certain electrical plants are able to generate with one pound of coal as much electricity as they used to generate with three.

EUROPEAN TITLES are becoming more numerous despite the democratic wave which swept over the continent at the end of the World War. In the republic of France the decoration system flourishes more than in any other country in the world. Among the new republics Finland, Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Esthonia and Latvia have introduced the system of decorations. England keeps up a more medieval style of titles and decorations than any other nation.

MINERAL PRODUCTION in the United States, with less than seven per cent. of the world's population, represents forty per cent. of the world's supply. Coal deposits are still considered illimitable, but soon an alloy will be needed to stop losses from corrosion and make our copper, iron and lead last longer. Corrosion costs oil companies alone $100,000,000 yearly.

HAWAII has lost primacy as the most cosmopolitan country. It has twenty-eight distinct races. In the continental United States the census now lists forty-four races, not counting Indians and Alaskan Eskimos.

AVERAGE DOCTOR lives sixty-two years according to vital statistics of the census bureau as revealed by the American Medical Association. Statistics of the leading insurance companies show that the average layman lives forty-seven years. One of the principal reasons for the doctor's long life is the quality of medical service available to him, it was asserted. When a doctor needs attention he knows what specialist to consult. Also, he watches his condition carefully. The nature of the work calls for men with strong constitutions and nerves. Many athletes in college are medical students, the statement said.

DIVORCE TOURS in Mexico are now handled by managers who undertake to arrange for their patrons not only the legal details of the severance of marital ties but the engagement of all transportation and hotel accommodations—with pleasure excursions during the few days the client is waiting for the legal formalities to be concluded. A Mexican official estimated that eight Americans arrived every day in Mexico during the month of December, 1927, to be divorced. This is at the rate of 2,920 a year.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION Foundation, an organization to "place on an efficient, permanent and business-like basis material resources for the advancement of religious education," has a board of trustees made up of nine business men. They believe that, by extending training and instruction in the fundamentals of right living, a great deal of juvenile delinquency can be eliminated and more definite standards established, which will also reduce the development of criminal tendencies.

The BOOK TABLE

READINGS FROM THE NEW POETS. Edited by William Webster Ellsworth. Cloth. 191 pages. New York: The Macmillan Company.

To me this is most interesting of the last fifty books that I have read into, and I really read this, yes, have read it because it fascinates me. "Mary Mapes Dodge used to say: 'Write it girls and boys,' not 'boys and girls,' because you say 'ladies and gentlemen,'" and of every other thing Mr. Ellsworth says something unusual in an unusual way.

Were it not for "All Rights Reserved" we would quote from Robert Frost: "Words are worse than nothing unless they do something," or "Poetry is words that have become deeds."

"The Accusation," by Edgar Lee Masters, never interested me until I realized that it was the accusation of the ranchman who owned the two thousand swine who fled down the mountain sides into the sea because of the devils that possessed them, until I reread the fifth chapter of Mark.

I had never heard of Langton Hughes and now I'll read everything I see about him.

I cannot say that I am any more fascinated with the verse of Edna St. Vincent Millay than I have been in the past, but her "Lament" means more than ever to me.

Of the fifty "New Poets" half of them are new to me and the editor makes several that I have loved before even more lovable. If I can make even a few of my readers enjoy this book as I have enjoyed it life will be a little more worth living.

FIRST COURSE IN BOTANY. An Interesting Study of Plants as Related to the Development of Knowledge of the Universe in Which We Live, and as a Phase of Modern Science. By Raymond J. Pool, University of Nebraska, and Arthur T. Evans, South Dakota State College of Agriculture. With the editorial co-operation of Otis W. Caldwell. Cloth. 415 pages. Boston, New York, Chicago, London, Atlanta, Dallas, Columbus, San Francisco: Ginn and Company.

The study of botany should be approached when leaf buds begin to swell, and when children feel the swelling of interest in nature. The doll days of girls and the scooter days of boys are human nature awakened interests, but there comes a time in early school life when springtime interests them with the pussy willow and the crocus, the swelling and bursting of leaf buds, and the scattering of seeds of the trees.

Children need no help in developing the human nature interests, but they do need specific guidance in the appreciation of nature. That is one of the chief reasons why children need school life as they enter the third three-year life experiences.

This "First Course" book is especially interesting because it uses its illustrations and examples from various sections of the country, evergreens and deciduous trees, the cactus and the elm. The teacher can select for study the plants that children can actually see in action, and omit those in which they will have no nature appeal.

From every angle this latest creation of a textbook on plants is the latest appeal in modern teaching and learning. It has all the natural science that the class can aspire to know, and at the same time the phases of the subject that make no appeal to him can be eliminated without difficulty. It meets all modern needs in the best modern way.

CHILD ACCOUNTING PRACTICE. A Manual of Child Accounting Teaching. By Abel J. McAllister and Arthur S. Otis. Cloth. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, and Chicago: World Book Company.

We can render best service by using extracts from the "Introduction" of Dr. Charles H. Judd:—

"In 1903 Superintendent Maxwell of New York City included in his annual report certain statements which ushered in a new era in school administration. He called attention to the fact that many pupils in the New York school system were in grades for which they were too old. Pupils who had failed to be promoted in normal fashion were sometimes three or four grades behind the points which they should have reached if their school careers had not been irregular. The machinery of school administration often fails to operate as it should, and where this is the case retardation is a fault of the school. This stimulated a series of scientific studies regarding pupil progress, and school officers began to compile age-grade tables and to take measures to reduce retardation and elimination.

"In some instances the measures adopted were quite arbitrary. Teachers were sometimes told that they were wholly responsible when pupils failed to be promoted. Where this extreme position was taken, teachers not infrequently promoted pupils even when it was inappropriate that they be sent forward to higher grades.

"Where less extreme views were held, school superintendents made an effort to discover causes of unsatisfactory progress. This entailed the development of new forms of records and the compilation of many tables. From 1908 to 1915 a great deal of attention was given to the problem of retardation and related matters. Then there came a period of apparent discouragement. Retardation was in some measure corrected, but it continued to such a degree as to be a major defect in the educational system. Furthermore, many school officers found it impossible to use effectively the elaborate statistical tables which they had compiled and included in their annual reports.

"McAllister and Otis have seen the problem in a large way and have brought together the general principles on which a complete system of child accounting should be based. They have worked out a series of blanks which exhibit in the concrete their conception of the form in which schools should keep their records. Their plan has the virtues of compactness and completeness. It supplies the superintendent with a device and with suggestions for the use of the device.

"The volume provides for successive summarizations of the information collected so that teachers and principals as well as superintendents shall be led to realize that reports are not mere routine, but are the only sound basis for the management of pupils and the administration of schools. While providing for summaries covering groups, the blanks are so arranged that each pupil is quite fully described. The most serious obstacle at the present time to the development of a science of school administration is the deplorable lack of general information by means of which individual schools and school systems can judge of their efficiency."

LATIN, FIRST YEAR. By Ralph Van Deman Magoffin, professor and head, Department of Classics, New York University, and Margaret Young Henry, chairman, Department of Classical Languages, Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York. Silver, Burdett and Company, 1928. 392+xl+xiv pages.

This first-year book conforms strictly with the spirit and specific recommendations of the Report of the Classical Investigation, and is therefore of unusual interest to all teachers of Latin. There are in all eighty-five lessons, with numerous review exer-

cises, and copious illustrations, admirably chosen. The ground covered is much the same as in the old-time first-year books, except that very much more emphasis is placed upon reading, while all subjunctive forms and constructions are postponed until the following year.

Perhaps the chief feature of the work is the treatment of the Latin Reading Lessons. These, admirably selected and carefully graded, consist entirely of connected Latin, and include mythological stories and legends, selections treating of Roman history and Roman life, together with one Latin playlet. Everything is based upon these reading lessons: forms, syntax, oral and written exercises, and word studies. Moreover, the selections, highly interesting as they are, will be read with pleasure and interest, as well as with profit, by boys and girls of the high school and junior high school age. Besides, they are so carefully graded that at the end pupils will find themselves possessed of the power to translate, almost without realizing it.

An excellent feature of the book is the emphasis placed upon English Vocabulary Building. One lesson in every ten is devoted to this subject, and nearly every lesson contains exercises in word study, based on the vocabulary of that lesson.

In general the book impresses the reviewer as of unusual excellence, based as it is upon the recent recommendations of the Report of the Classical Investigation, and at the same time retaining, in an up-to-date way, the best features of the old-time first-year books. It deserves a wide use in both junior and senior high schools.

THIS ECONOMIC WORLD AND HOW IT MAY BE IMPROVED. By Thomas Nixon Carver, of Harvard University, and Hugh W. Lester. Cloth. Illustrated. Chicago and New York: A. W. Shaw Company.

No one has the same popular appeal in thinking and writing on economic subjects as has Professor Thomas Nixon Carver of Harvard University. He has been a student of economic conditions for many years, and a writer with the rare gift of imparting a thrill to whoever reads what he writes of things of everyday life.

This his latest writing about the use and abuse of personal, community and state finances is one of the most important studies of economic past or present conditions that has been written for schools.

Escape of any kind is one of the greatest thrills of life. It is one of the most fascinating things in the world. But man's escape from Want is certainly the most thrilling of all. To watch the drama of economics unfold, chapter by chapter, as the world has escaped time after time from the clutches of Want, is to gain a new understanding of how we live—and why we live as we do.

SAPLINGS. Second Series, 1927. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Scholastic Publishing Company.

Maurice R. Robinson, editor of The Scholastic, has an interesting and appreciative "Foreword."

"The annual record of creative writing done by America's secondary school students is representative of a great body of young people, thoughtful, imaginative, and analytical—a group, vitally interested in literature, that is constantly increasing in numbers, is responsive to good teaching, and is attuned to the beauty, humor, and pathos in the world about them.

"That 'Saplings' is truly representative may be seen by a glance at the table of contents. Rural, small town, consolidated, as well as metropolitan high schools from the Atlantic to the Pacific have furnished contributors.

"The work was chosen from more than 16,000 manuscripts submitted in the annual Scholastic Awards contest. Distinguished artists and critics served as judges in the contest."

The Journal of Education confidently believes that the publication of this volume serves a definite educational purpose. It will be an incentive to high school students every day to raise their individual standards of writing. One may not hope to attain the heights of the masters, argues the high school mind, but may not one hope to equal the attainments of the fellow-student in the neighboring high school?

Many teachers of literature used the initial volume of Saplings as an approach to the study of major poets. High school pupils can appreciate this poetry. To enjoy it they do not need a book on mythology or a dictionary at their elbows, nor the contents of a library of philosophy and history in their brains, nor do they need years of travel and a breadth of wordly experience as a background. .

GREYHOUND FANNY. By Martha Morley Stewart. Cloth. 190 pages. Published by H. DeF. Stewart, Seattle, Washington.

David Starr Jordan, for whose opinion we have keen appreciation, has written: "'Greyhound Fanny' is charmingly written and breathes a beautiful spirit toward animals and the children of men."

"Greyhound Fanny" is a true narrative of a wonderful and lovable dog. Meta, her mother, was born of aristocratic and noble lineage in the Royal Kennels of London. Mr. Bradley, the husband of the "Beautiful Lady," brought Meta as a gift to his wife in America, where "Fanny" was born two months later.

In the "Beautiful Lady's" home Fanny was surrounded with luxury and humane culture which her life story reveals, vivid, realistic and deeply impressive.

We have no words to tell what a lovely story of a real dog in real life this is, how genuinely it pictures the human traits and animal traits as a beautiful story grows in its revelations of a "dog's life" in this complex world. Like all good stories it ends delightfully.

We quote from a few of the friends of the Journal of Education:—

"Books like 'Greyhound Fanny' have their great importance not alone because of the greater happiness which will come to the lower animals, but because of the richer life which comes to man through the extension of his sympathies."—Dr. P. P. Claxton.

"The literature of humaneness must rely on books dealing with animal life. 'Greyhound Fanny' is such a book. It helps the child to enter, understand and appreciate that life."—William B. Owen.

"The idealism and spirit of helpfulness embodied in the successive chapters of 'Greyhound Fanny' should recommend it of itself. The story should serve to instill into the minds of children in particular the lesson of kindness and consideration for all dumb animals."—Olive M. Jones.

"This certifies that the book 'Greyhound Fanny,' written by Martha Morley Stewart, has been approved by the Los Angeles County Board of Education for purchase as a library book by school districts."—Mark Keppel.

Books Received

"Little Studies in Greek." By Jane Gray Carter. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company.

"Friends of Africa." By Jean Kenyon Mackenzie.—"Camp Fires in the Congo." By Mrs. John M. Springer. The Central Committee on the United Study of Foreign Missions.

"A Workbook Syllabus in Principles of Education." By Orlie M. Clem. Baltimore, Md.: Warwick and York, Inc.

"Modern Life and Thought." By Frederick H. Law. New York: The Century Company.

The "Also Rans" (Men Who Missed the Presidency). By Don C. Seitz.—"Dictionary of English Grammar" (And Handbook of American Usage). By Maurice H. Weseen. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company.

"Health Heroes" (Edward Jenner). By Grace T. Hallock and C. E. Turner.—"Passing of the Recitation." By V. T. Thayer.—"Health Heroes" (Louis Pasteur). By Grace T. Hallock and C. E. Turner. Boston, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Company.

"Pilots and Pathfinders." By William L. Nida and Stella H. Nida.—"A Sociological Philosophy of Education." By Ross L. Finney. New York: The Macmillan Company.

"Oxford of Today." By Laurence A. Crosby, Frank Aydelotte, Alan C. Valentine. New York: Oxford University Press.

"The Nature Painting and Drawing Book." By Susan Smedley. Kansas City, Mo.: McIndoo Publishing Company.

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GRINS BETWEEN GRINDS

In No Hurry

A colored man called at a hospital in one of the suburbs and inquired about a friend of his who was a patient there.

"Why, he's getting along fine," replied the nurse; "he's convalescing now."

"Is he?" said the visitor. "Well, I ain't in no hurry. I'll jes' sit down an' wait till he gets through."

Vague

"I beg your pardon, sir," said the bank teller, "but what is your name?"

"My name!" ejaculated the customer. "Can't you see my signature on the deposit slip?"

"Well, sir, that is what aroused my curiosity."

A Good Guess

Doctor—"Your trouble, madam, seems to be due to an excess of adipose tissue."

Patient—"My goodness! I wonder if that is what makes me so awfully fat?"—Boston Transcript.

Equal Heat

She—"Oh, Philip, what can equal the warmth of a true woman's love?"

He—"The heat of her temper, my dear."

Eventually

"Are you going to the flower show?"

"No, it's too much trouble. I think I'll stay home and get it over the radio."

Elsie's Three Studies

Preacher—"Do you go to school, Elsie dear?"

Elsie—"Yes, and I like my teacher."

"What do you learn there, dear?"

"Reading, writing and gozintas."

"Gozintas—what are they?"

"Don't you know? Why 3 gozinta 12 four times, 5 gozinta 15 three times, like that."—Capper's Weekly.

The Profits

A priest offered twenty-five cents to the boy who could tell him who was the greatest man in history.

"Christopher Columbus," answered the Italian boy.

"George Washington," answered the American lad.

"St. Patrick," shouted the Jewish boy.

"The quarter is yours," said the priest, "but why did you say St. Patrick?"

"Right down in my heart I know it was Moses," said the Jewish boy, "but business is business."

Fatal Temptation

Mother—"You are at the foot of the spelling class again, are you?"

Boy—"Yes'um."

Mother—"How did it happen?"

Boy—"Got too many z's in scissors."

Obviously So

A small schoolgirl's essay on "My Family" contained this surprising statement:—

"In my family there are three of us, my father, mother and me. I am the youngest."

Good Idea

A newspaper publisher in another state offered a prize for the best answer to the conundrum:—

"Why is a newspaper like a woman?"

The prize was won by a woman who sent in this answer:—

"Because every man should have one of his own and keep his eyes off his neighbor's."

Out of Reach

He—"I live in the country now. It's terribly inconvenient."

She—"What do you miss most?"

He—"The last train."

Moving Forward

Bride—"I don't know how the biscuits are. How do they taste?"

Husband—"Well, they are stepping stones to something better."

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JOURNAL MAIL BAG

A County Superintendent's View

March 27, 1928.

Editor, Journal of Education:—

For nearly thirty years I have been a subscriber and reader of the Journal of Education.

I have often commended you for publishing the different ideas and viewpoints relating to educational problems.

Your last issue carried an article entitled "The Superiority of the Rural School," by V. H. Culp, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S. D. The article is misleading and, in many of its statements, positively ridiculous.

Do you think any teacher or school official may read and accept the statements in this article?

How can an education in the rural situation be improved through such leaders in the teacher-training institutions? Very truly yours,

H. E. Hall.

Bowling Green, Ohio.

A Plea for the Rural School

March 28, 1928.

Editor, Journal of Education:—

An article in your March 26, 1928, issue pleases me so much that I write to thank you. "The Superiority of the Rural School," by V. H. Culp, seems to me the sanest, most reasonable expression of the matter I've ever had the good fortune to read.

I am the mother of five children, the oldest boy in college, the youngest in the fourth grade. Before marriage I taught for eleven years in ungraded rural schools, preferring them for the wonderful opportunity they give both teacher and pupil. Since marriage I have taught my own and neighbors' children when winter weather precluded a three-mile drive twice a day to the schoolhouse. In my childhood I was one of the transported pupils from our district to a village school. During recent years I have followed our children's school careers very closely; visiting schools frequently, getting acquainted with the teachers and substituting in the schools of the town from a day at a time to five weeks. So I feel that I know something about schools and children's reactions.

At present we live near a very good school and not very far from a large village and the city line. Our school committee has consolidated most of the town's schools. I think ours is the only one left by itself, and they mean to close it and carry the children to a school already so overcrowded that a portable schoolhouse is being set up there to help dispose of the congestion. No wonder we are determined to keep it open if the parents have anything to say.

It is bad enough to crowd our high schools and colleges, but far worse to herd into our primary and grammar grades great companies of children too young to be able to develop any individuality in the face of so great odds.

If the family is the unit of society, and family life is desirable for orphaned children, so much so that an effort is being made to close orphanages and provide family life for the inmates, why should our children be taken from schools that provide to a great degree the environment nearest like that of a family, and put into schools which are nearer like a children's asylum?

It seems to me that the *ideal school system* for all grades below the eighth, at least, would be small groups in a country environment with a friendly, sympathetic "home teacher," and teachers of special subjects bringing their treasures of knowledge and inspiration to the children there. Instead of transporting our children to the city schools, transport into the country the children who may otherwise never realize rural delights. Let them study nature at first hand, learn the joy of a quiet, drowsy, sunny meadow with the drone of bees, the whisper of breezes; the happiness of hearing a brook gurgling over its stones; all the things which are conducive to *thinking* and that help to counteract the bustle, rush, confusion, and jazz they find on all sides elsewhere.

Let teachers drive from school to school, teaching their specialties. Other desirable ideas follow. Why can't someone adopt and present this idea—someone with a voice of authority—and why can't some town be found which will try it?

Thank you again for that article.

Yours sincerely,

Lora E. O. Clemence.

475 Greenville Avenue,
Olneyville, R. I.

A Class in Music

Astonishing results have been obtained in the Shurtleff grammar school, South Boston, by a new system of class instruction in music. The vehicle in this instance is the piano. Imagine a class of fifty chosen at random, studying the piano together! Well, the way it is done is with the use of one real piano and fifty dummy keyboards. These are wooden affairs, four octaves in range, with black keys raised and beveled grooves in lieu of the white keys. Under direction of the inventor, Henry S. Wilder of West Newton, Mass., a demonstration was recently given, at which a representative of the Journal of Education was present. One pupil was called to the piano. Another stood in front of the room and acted as "dictator." The remainder struck their dummy keyboards in obedience to the dictator. Dictator and player were changed frequently. "Think before you act," was the motto of the occasion. Children

struck single notes, successions of notes, and chords, at the word of command. But first they decided the tempo, the degree of loudness, the accent, and other points suited to the piece in hand.

It was a remarkable exhibition of what can be done in teaching the piano at wholesale. In addition to this, the principal of the school, Miss Carrigan, declares that the pupils are doing better in their other school work by reason of the discipline acquired in "thinking music."

Commercial Helpfulness

Selling class pins to high school students started as a gumshoe proposition. The salesman glided into the building as quietly as he could, called out the class president or committee on some mysterious business, and endeavored to pocket the order before the principal knew what had happened.

Modern methods are different. The pin companies of better grade play an open game. They want the principal and teachers to know what is going on and to approve the transaction.

One concern in particular is going after this pin business in a way that evinces intelligent effort to deserve the confidence and good will of the school faculty.

Henry A. Niven, vice-president of the L. G. Balfour Company, Attleboro, Mass., is, we believe, responsible for the formulation of a plan which is actually helping a number of schools to develop high standards of personal attainment in their students. The Balfour people design for the school a beautiful little bronze plaque, showing a picture of the school or the city seal, or whatever seems most characteristic and appropriate. On the plaque are the three words, "Scholarship," "Loyalty" and "Achievement." The plaque is mounted in a mahogany frame containing six small metal plates upon which are inscribed, each year, the names of pupils deemed to have won the highest distinction in these three fields. The only string to the Balfour offer is a term contract, enabling the company to supply pins of similar design to several successive classes. Thus in return for a manufacturing economy, these enterprising jewelers do their bit to assist the principal and teachers in their work of instruction and character building.

Commercialism that produces such co-operation as this is decidedly worthy of the best in modern business.

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